

Exhibit 2

TABLE 1 PCR primers

Region	Name	Sequence 5'-3'	Position	Ref.
V_{γ}	STP. 120	CTTATGGAGATTGTTTCAGC	139-145	1
$V_{\gamma 2}$	STP. 121	CGGAAAAAAACAAATCAACAG	37-43	1
$V_{\gamma 4}$	STP. 073	TGTCTTGCAACCCCTACCC	49-56	29
$V_{\gamma 5}$	STP. 094	TGTGCACTGGTACCAACTGA	35-42	23
$V_{\gamma 6}$	STP. 107	(GGAA)ITCAAAAGAAAACATTGTC	55-62	23
$V_{\gamma 7}$	STP. 102	AAGCTAGGGGTCTCTGC	18-24	30
C_{δ}	STP. 110	CGAATTCCACAATCTCTTG	158-165	3
$V_{\delta 1}$	STP. 111	(GGA)ATTAGAAGGAAACAATGAAAG	79-86	4
$V_{\delta 3}$	STP. 119	TTCTGGCTATTGGCTCTGAC	65-72	19
$V_{\delta 4}$	STP. 075	CCGCTTCTGTGAACTTCC	61-68	18
$V_{\delta 5}$	STP. 082	CAGATCCTCCAGTTCATCC	42-49	18
$V_{\delta 6}$	STP. 113	TCAAGTCCATCAGCCTGTC	72-78	3
$V_{\delta 7}$	STP. 076	CGCAGAGCTGCAGTGTAACT	18-25	18

The position of the nucleotide sequence of the primer is indicated by the corresponding amino-acid number counted from the putative N-terminal cleavage site in each reference. For the $V_{\delta 6}$ primer, a sequence common to p12, Z53 and Z49 was chosen. The 3' 15 bases of this primer are also common to M23 (ref. 4).

The amino-acid sequences deduced from the junctional nucleotide sequences indicate that IEL $\gamma\delta$ TCR would have a high degree of structural diversity in the $V-J$ junctional regions (data not shown); but diversity is not limited to these regions because the $V_{\gamma 7}$ -coded γ -chain can pair with either the $V_{\gamma 4}$, $V_{\gamma 5}$, $V_{\gamma 6}$ or V_{δ} δ -chain. This diversity of the IEL $\gamma\delta$ TCR is reminiscent of that observed for the $\gamma\delta$ TCR expressed on the thymocytes of adult mice^{18,19}. The IEL $\gamma\delta$ TCR, however, clearly comprise a unique subset distinct from those on adult thymocytes which use $V_{\gamma 4}$ and $V_{\delta 5}$ gene segments predominantly.

The $\gamma\delta$ TCR expressed on DEC, the other known epithelium-associated $\gamma\delta$ T-cell subset, utilize a single V_{γ} ($V_{\gamma 5}$) and a single V_{δ} ($V_{\delta 1}$) gene segments and have no junctional diversity¹⁴. This suggests that the ligand for DEC $\gamma\delta$ TCR is monomorphic unlike those of $\alpha\beta$ TCR¹⁴. By contrast, IEL certainly have the capacity to recognize structurally diverse ligands with their highly diverse $\gamma\delta$ TCR. This, plus the fact that IEL are CD8-positive^{20,21} strongly suggests that their ligand is composed of a structurally variable peptide presented by a class I or class I-like protein of the major histocompatibility complex (MHC). The high level of diversity concentrated in the $V-(D)-J$ junctions is consistent with the recognition of variable peptides, if the folding of polypeptide chains is similar for TCR $\gamma\delta$ and immunoglobulin molecules²². The origin of the postulated peptides is a matter of speculation. One possibility is that they originate from a relatively large set of self proteins whose syntheses are induced when the epithelial cells are under stress. Another possibility is that the peptides arise from viruses, bacteria and other microorganisms that are prone to infect the intestinal epithelium cells. The preferential usage of the $V_{\gamma 7}$ segment may reflect its affinity for a limited number of class I or class I-like protein(s) that may be expressed on intestinal epithelial cells. □

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Cloning of murine α and β retinoic acid receptors and a novel receptor γ predominantly expressed in skin

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IN addition to having profound effects on embryonic pattern formation¹⁻⁵, retinoic acid (RA) has striking effects on differentiation and maintenance of epithelial cells *in vivo* and *in vitro* (reviewed in refs 6 and 7). Skin is a major target organ for retinoids both in its normal⁶⁻⁹ and pathological states¹⁰. The discovery of two human nuclear receptors for RA (hRAR α and hRAR β) acting as transcriptional RA-inducible enhancer factors¹¹⁻¹⁴ has provided a basis for understanding how RA controls gene expression^{15,16}. To investigate the specific role that RARs might play during development and in adult tissues, we have cloned the mouse RAR α and RAR β (mRAR α and mRAR β). Their amino-acid sequences are much more homologous to those of hRAR α and hRAR β , respectively, than to each other, which suggests strongly that RAR α - and β -subtypes have different functions. Most interestingly we have discovered a novel RAR subtype (mRAR γ) whose expression in adult mouse seems to be highly restricted to skin, whereas RAR α and RAR β are expressed in a variety of adult tissues. Furthermore, both mRAR α and mRAR γ RNAs are readily detected in undifferentiated F9 embryocarcinoma (EC) cells, whereas mRAR β messenger RNA is induced at least 30-fold in RA-differentiated F9 cells.

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An 11.5-day-old total mouse embryo λ gt10 complementary DNA library was screened with hRAR α and hRAR β cDNA probes: 81 clones were isolated, of which two sets were identified as mRAR α and mRAR β on the basis of a 98% homology of their cDNA-deduced amino-acid sequence with that of hRAR α and hRAR β , respectively (Fig. 1a, b). Less homology with RAR α or RAR β was found for a third set of clones, although the deduced amino-acid sequence (Fig. 1c) was obviously related to both of them (Fig. 2; the A-F regions in Figs 1 and 2 were as previously defined in refs 11, 13 and 16). This new member of the mouse RAR subfamily was designated mRAR γ . The greatest amino-acid sequence similarities among the three mRARs were found in the regions corresponding to the DNA-binding domain (region C, 95%) and the ligand-binding domain (region E, 85% identity between mRAR α and mRAR γ , and 90% identity between mRAR β and either mRAR α or γ), suggesting that mRAR γ recognizes the same responsive element and binds the same ligand as mRAR α and mRAR β (see below). Region B is also conserved (75%, 86% and 79% identity between mRAR γ and mRAR α , mRAR γ and mRAR β , and mRAR α and mRAR β , respectively), whereas no conservation was seen in this region when comparing nuclear receptors that bind different ligands (ref. 16 and refs therein). The D region, which is not conserved across the nuclear-receptor family of a given species and may act as a hinge region¹⁶, is less conserved among mRARs. Both the N- and C-terminal segments of region D, however, are highly conserved, although the central segment is not (hatched box in Fig. 2). No significant similarity was found between mRARs in region A (encoded in an exon different from that encoding region B, see ref. 13), nor in region F, both of which also vary within a given species between the different nuclear receptors¹⁶.

By contrast, there is an almost complete conservation of amino-acid sequence between the A regions of hRAR α ^{11,12} and mRAR α (98%), and hRAR β ^{13,14} and mRAR β (94%), and between the corresponding F regions (90% for hRAR α and mRAR α , and 92% for hRAR β and mRAR β). Similarly, the entire D region of a given RAR subtype is conserved across

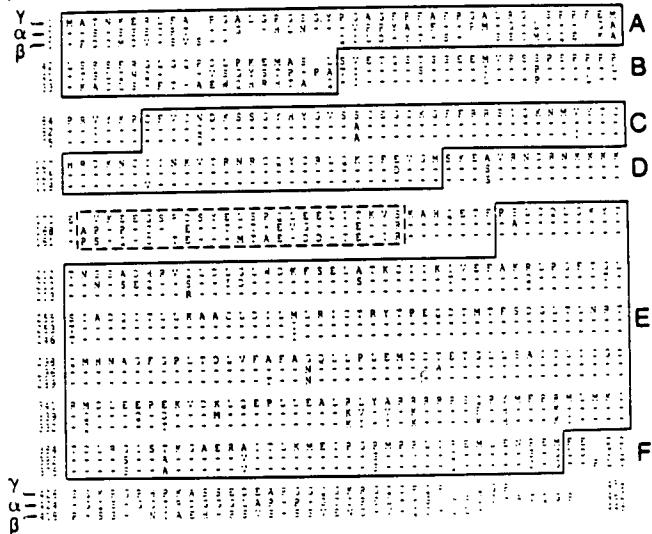


FIG. 2 Amino-acid alignment of the mRAR α , mRAR β and mRAR γ (as indicated). The single letter amino-acid code is used, and the number of the last amino acid in each sequence is given at the end of the alignment. Numbers on the left side correspond to the first amino acid in a given line. Regions A, C and E are boxed and regions A-F are designated with capital letters on the right side of the figure. The non-conserved part within region D is boxed with a hatched line. Gaps have been introduced to obtain the optimal alignment of the mRAR γ sequence with that of mRAR α and mRAR β . Dashes represent mRAR α and mRAR β amino acids which are identical with those of mRAR γ .

species (98% identity between both hRAR α and mRAR α , and hRAR β and mRAR β). This high degree of conservation of the A, D and F regions for a given RAR subtype contrasts with the lack of or lower conservation of the same regions among the various RARs in a given species (see above) and also with the lower conservation of regions A/B, D and F for a given steroid-hormone receptor across species^{16,17}. Thus the A, B, D and F regions may have specific functions not performed by the C and E regions, but necessary for the three RARs to exert their specific physiological roles. Note that the A/B regions of the oestrogen and progesterone receptors have been implicated in specific transcriptional transactivation of some target genes^{16,18-20}.

When mRAR α , mRAR β and mRAR γ cDNAs were expressed²¹ in HeLa cells together with a reporter plasmid (TRE3)₃-tk-CAT containing a RA-responsive element (Fig. 3), all three receptors responded similarly to all-trans RA. As was the case for hRAR α and hRAR β ^{11,13}, retinol was much less efficient at the same concentrations (data not shown). No obvious difference was observed between the dose responsiveness of mRAR α and mRAR β , in contrast with results obtained previously with human chimaeric RAR α and RAR β ¹³. This may be due to the use of a less sensitive responsive element in the present study.

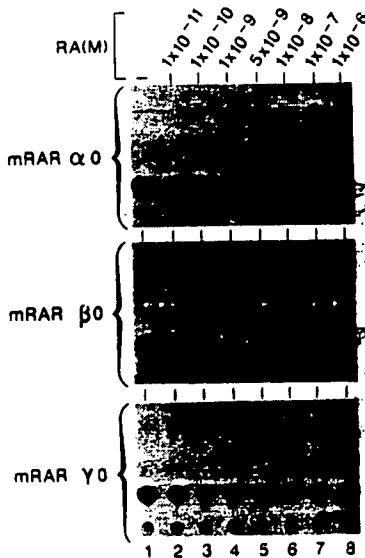


FIG. 3 RA-dependent transcriptional trans-activation by mRARs transiently expressed in HeLa cells. HeLa cells were co-transfected as described^{11,13} with pSG5-based expression vectors²¹ containing the entire cDNA of either mRAR α (mRAR α 0), mRAR β (mRAR β 0) or mRAR γ (mRAR γ 0), and a reporter plasmid, (TRE3)₃-tk-CAT, carrying a synthetic RA-responsive element (RARE). After transfection (24 h), cells were fed with media containing increasing concentrations of RA as indicated ($0-1 \times 10^{-6}$ M, lanes 1-8, respectively) and collected 48 h after transfection for determination of CAT (chloramphenicol acetyltransferase) activity.

METHODS. HeLa cells ($\sim 10^6$ per dish) were co-transfected with 0.5 μ g of a given mRAR expression vector, 2 μ g of reporter plasmid and 2 μ g of pCH110 (Pharmacia, a β -galactosidase expression vector used as an internal control to normalize for variations in transfection efficiency). The total amount of transfected DNA was adjusted to 20 μ g by addition of carrier DNA (BSM13+). Cell culture media, treatment of cells, preparation of cytosolic extracts, and CAT assays were carried out as previously described^{11,13}. The reporter plasmid (TRE3)₃-tk-CAT (ref. 26) contains a trimer of a synthetic RARE (5'-AGCTTAGGTCAGGGACGTGACCTT-3') inserted in pBLCAT8⁺ (ref. 27) upstream of the tk promoter. mRAR α 0 was constructed by inserting the reconstructed mRAR α cDNA (see Fig. 1) into the EcoRI site of pSG5 (ref. 21). mRAR β 0 was obtained by inserting the Eag1 BamHI fragment of mRAR β cDNA into the BamHI site of pSG5 with the help of a BamHI/Eag1 adaptor, and mRAR γ 0 was constructed by ligating the EcoRI-flanked mRAR γ cDNA (Fig. 1c) into the EcoRI site of pSG5.

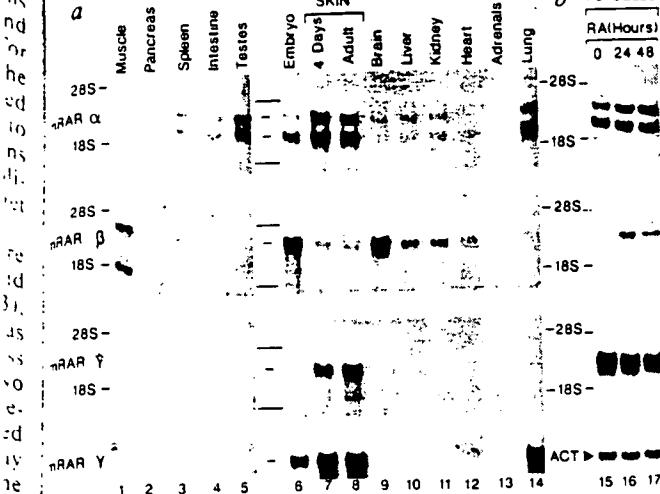


FIG. 4 Northern blot analysis of mRAR α , mRAR β and mRAR γ poly(A) $^+$ RNA from various mouse tissues (as indicated in a, lanes 1-14), and F9 EC cells (b, lanes 15-17) before (lane 15), and after 24 h (lane 16) and 48 h (lane 17) treatment with RA (3.3×10^{-7} M). Poly(A) $^+$ RNA (4 μ g) was loaded in all lanes. The 28S and 18S rRNA standards were taken as being 4.712 (ref. 28) and 1.869 (ref. 29) bases long, respectively. a, mRAR α and mRAR γ sequences were detected with specific [32 P]-end labelled oligonucleotide probes. The entire mRAR β cDNA labelled with [32 P] by random priming was used to detect mRAR β RNA. Hybridizations were performed using the same blots, first hybridized with the mRAR α probe (exposure time, 7 days at -80° C; two intensifying screens and Kodak X-0-5 film), then with the mRAR β probe and finally with the mRAR γ probe (exposure times, 4 days). The lower panel corresponds to a different blot hybridized only with a randomly primed entire mRAR γ cDNA probe (exposure time, 24 h). Actin RNA could be revealed with a cytoskeletal actin cDNA probe 30 in all cases except for pancreas and adrenal preparations suggesting RNA degradation (data not shown). b, Three blots were hybridized with randomly primed [32 P]-labelled entire mRAR α , mRAR β and mRAR γ cDNA probes (exposure time, 12 h). The filters were also probed with the actin cDNA probe (lower panel, ACT).

METHODS. RNA was extracted using the GnSCN-CsCl procedure 31 . Poly(A) $^+$ RNA 32 was electrophoresed on 1% agarose-1.1 M formaldehyde gels 33 and transferred to nitrocellulose filters 24 . Hybridisation was as described in the legend to Fig. 1, except that 50% formamide was used and hybridisation was at $42-45^{\circ}$ C ($37-40^{\circ}$ C for oligonucleotide probes) for 18 h. Filters were dehybridized by 5-min treatments in $0.05 \times$ SSPE at 90° C. Specific activity of all randomly-primed cDNA probes and labelled oligonucleotides was $\sim 10^8$ and 10^8 c.p.m. μ g $^{-1}$ DNA, respectively. The most stringent wash (15 min) was at 65° C in $0.1 \times$ SSPE plus 1.0% SDS/0.03% NaPPI for filters hybridized with randomly-primed cDNA probes and at 55° C in $1 \times$ SSPE plus 1.0% SDS/0.03% NaPPI with [32 P]-labelled oligonucleotide probes.

The expression of mRARs was investigated using specific oligonucleotide (mRAR α and mRAR γ) or randomly primed cDNA (mRAR β and mRAR γ) probes (Fig. 4a). Two mRAR α RNAs (~ 3.8 kilobase (kb) and 2.8 kb) were found in all mouse tissues including skin, and in 11.5-day old embryo (see legend to Fig. 4a for pancreas and adrenal). Compared with mRAR α RNA, the 3.4-kb mRAR β RNA was relatively more abundant in brain and in total 11.5-day embryo, and lower in skin and lung, than in other tissues. No 3.4-kb mRAR β RNA could be detected in spleen, intestine and testis, and an additional 1.9-kb species was found only in muscle (due to the use of different probes and exposure conditions, the mRAR β signal was amplified at least 20-fold relative to the mRAR α signal in Fig. 4a). By contrast, it is remarkable that mRAR γ RNA was detected at levels at least as high as those of mRAR α only in the skin of both 4-day-old and adult animals (upper and third row in Fig. 4a). Using a probe of higher specific activity, mRAR γ RNA was detectable in total 11.5-day embryo and in lung, and at trace levels in spleen (lower row in Fig. 4a). mRAR α and mRAR γ RNAs were also present in F9 EC cells which differentiate to endodermal-like cells upon exposure to RA 22 (Fig. 4b). mRAR β RNA was induced by RA (at least 30-fold from densitometry), whereas no variation was seen for mRAR α RNA, and mRAR γ RNA decreased by two-fold. A similar induction of mRAR β RNA has been observed by L. Gudas *et al.* (personal communication). Whether this induction is transcriptional, as for hRAR β in a human cell line 23 , and is mediated by mRAR α or mRAR γ or both, is unknown.

In summary, three RAR subtypes are expressed in the mouse, two of them being strikingly homologous to human RAR α and RAR β . That hRAR α and mRAR α , and hRAR β and mRAR β are more homologous to each other than either hRAR α and hRAR β , or mRAR α and mRAR β , strongly suggests that the three RAR subtypes exert specific functions perhaps by regulating the transcription of different genes at different times of development and in specific cells. In this respect, it is noteworthy that mRAR γ expression seems to be highly restricted to skin which is known to be an exquisite RA target in both normal and pathological states $^{6-10}$. Whether mRAR γ is specifically

expressed in keratinocytes remains to be seen. Finally, the numerous effects of RA on development and the presence of the three RARs in mouse embryo and differentiated F9 cells, raises the question as to whether they exhibit specific patterns of expression and function during embryogenesis. □

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